

***COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN SPORT ACTIVITIES***  
***IN BENSA WOREDA, SIDAMA ZONE, SNNPRS.***

**BY**

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**Addis Ababa, Ethiopia**

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## **ACRONYMS**

**CON-** Common Wealth of Nations

**CSA -** Central Statistics Authority

**DCMS -** Department for Culture, Media and Sport

**DIY -** Do It Yourself maintenance

**FDRE –** Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia

**FSC-** Federal Sport Commission

**GDP -** Gross Domestic Product

**GNP -** Gross National Income

**GVA -** Gross Value Added

**HSE -** The Health Survey for England

**LDCs -** Least Developed Countries

**MOFED -** Ministry Of Finance and Economic Development

**MDGs-** Millennium Development Goals

**MYSC -** Ministry of Youth, Sports & Culture of Ethiopia

**NOC –** National Olympic Committee

**SNNPR -** Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region

**UK -** United Kingdom

**UNESCO -** United Nations Economic, Science and cultural Organization.

## **ABSTRACT**

*In this study primary data from 60 households and 40 secondary school students in Bensa woreda was used to explore the participation of the community in sport activities. It finds Around 99.9% of boys and girls of ages between 15-18 had taken part in one or more sport and recreation activities at least once “this year”. The likelihood of an individual taking part in sport is affected by many factors, the most obvious being age, sex, economic circumstances, health, life stage, available time and other responsibilities, these are more evident in household heads survey. Simple Random Sampling Method, and Both qualitative and quantities data were used in order to analyze and interpret the data. Surprisingly, the Participation in sport and recreation varies widely by household type. For example, people from households with children are more likely to participate, while lone have the lowest rates of Participation compared with lone adults and those from households with two and above adults and children who have the highest. The findings of this paper could justify further research need to be developed and explored on participation of the community in sport activities in particular and contribution of sport to economic growth and development in general. Such studies need to be carried out at zonal and regional level for further application of the studies in the policy framework.*

**Key words:** *community, participation, development, recreation, fitness, household heads.*

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

The researcher's intention in this paper is to assess the community participation with particular reference to community in Bensa woreda using primary data collected from the sampled household heads of three kebeles (Kebado, Burra and Denby) and two secondary schools (Kebena Gata and Alo) students in the woreda. Fortunately, this study is timely with the current sport development vision of Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE) which calls enhancing the participation of the community in sports and sport for-all as well as recreational activities in consistent with their capacity and preference so as to realize the fundamental rights of citizens towards exercising sports.. For the implementation of the sport development vision in the region of SNNPRS, the study motivates further empirical researches in the entire region and also indicates areas of interventions to maximize sport participation.

### 1.1. Background of the study

Sports-like behaviors descended from its wild and viscous animal origin. This primitive (instinct) was so engrained that millions of years of evolution could not remove it. It has been such an integral part of human nature that we even make fun-filled games with it. The term "sports" is the word generally used in reference to these games and some games even pit the player against themselves in a solitary sport of self-destruction. The net result of all the competition is a dog-eat-dog culture with bitter rivalries, hostility, violence, antagonism, and polarization (Joseph, 2011)

Sport encompasses the various forms of physical activities carried by an individual or groups either in organized or unorganized manner to recreate once own, build his physique and cultivate his/her brain, test state of fitness, irrespective of a age, sex, place and time.

The bases for sport are of course the community and mankind at large. Participating in sports not only empowers the individual with healthy physique brain but also strengthens social bondage by creating harmony with others. This in turn creates solidarity among nations and nationalities thus consolidating the unity of the peoples. Being health

physically and mentally by engaging oneself in sports contributes towards productivity on one hand, and minimizes medical cost on the other. Since broad-based sports activities also guarantee the emergence of outstanding sports persons, their appearance on international competitive arenas again popularizes the country of their origin hence strengthening relations with other countries.

Modern sport has a history of over half a century in this country. Even if many types of games are introduced within this period, the growth of modern sport is still at the lower level. The causes for these are multi faceted which includes organizational and that of outlook. As the leadership in sports lacked a popular base in this country, it has been undergoing a series of continuous reorganizational restructuring. Its main focus has been on organizing competitive sports for the very few elite athletes who have gained recognition by themselves rather than producing elite sports persons by organizing community centered sports activities at least from my personal observation in my locality .(Ibid).

Yet as this intent on gaining victory lacks broad base that would replenish healthy and able sports persons, the results registered have been declining as well. The limited role of the community in sports, the decline of sports in schools; the shortage of sports facilities, sportswear and equipment as well as the lack of trained personnel in the sphere have also made the problems more complex.

In order to gradually solve these fundamental problems and guide our sports in a different direction with a new outlook, a community centered movement remains the only alternative. Therefore, realizing the imminent role of the society in producing elite sports persons capable of registering outshining achievements at national and international competitions, the formulation of sport policy has become essential.

Sidama zone, Sidama people found in southern nations, nationalities and people of Ethiopia. It covers the area of 69818.8 meter square of land. Sidama zone share a border with oromiya in south-west and northwest, Gedio and Oromiya again in south and Wolaita in west side (SNNPR profile 2001). And lies between 6.14-7.18 latitude and 37.92to 39.19 longitudes, with an elevation ranging 501-3000 meters above sea level. The zone is divided in 19 Woredas with a total population of 3019442 (2007). Regarding

the Agro – Ecology of the zone, out of the total land size 26.8% is kolla, 45.49% Weinadega and 27.71% Dega. The annual mean temperature of the zone ranges between 10.1-27°C and the annual mean rainfall ranges 801-1600 mm. According to the land utilization data of the region, 50.67% is cultivated land, 17.57% grazing land, 6.51% forest bushes and shrub land, 17.84 % cultivable, and the remaining 7.41% is covered by others.(Wolassa L. Kumo,2009).

Sidama zone has a total length of 1173.8 km. all weather road , of the total length 96.5 km. is tarmac road , 857 km graveled and 52 km is partially graveled. Sidama zone ranks first in the region, by coffee production. Annually, more than twenty thousand tones of cleaned coffee is sent to the central market. The livestock population of the zone in 2007 was 2150.55 thousand cattle, 1009.47 thousand sheep & goat, 204.46 thousand equines and 1512.42 thousand poultry.(Ibid)

Bensa wereda is one of the twenty one rural weredas of Sidama zone in SNNPR where this case study is undertaken. The total population of the wereda is estimated to be 298051 out of which 150878 male and 147173 are females (CSA, 2012). It constitutes 37 farmers' associations.

The area is densely populated and covers the mid land/temperate/ or' woinadega'70%, 'dega' 23%, 'kolla' 7% agro economic areas. The area is hilly and well wooded, 122 hectares with coffee grown under indigenous shade trees. The mean annual rainfall ranges from 900mm to 1800mm, and the two rainy seasons of the 'belg' rains 35%, (which falls from March to May) and the 'kiremt' rains 65% (which falls from July to October). Some rain fall also occurs in June, but this is known as hot and sunny month. The mean annual temperature ranges from 12.6°C to 22.5°C. (Ibid)

The main coffee harvesting period is from October to December, but there are some variations from one area to the next depending on their altitude. Lower areas tend to harvest early, starting in September; while other areas can harvest as early as January. Coffee production is labor intensive, mainly during harvesting and processing, and provides important sources of casual labor income for poor households of the kebele.

Farmers grow corn, root crops and inset, but coffee has an important position in the socio-economic conditions and cultural life of the people. Realizing its various

importance progresses in coffee industry can thus be regarded as one of the factors that stimulate the development of the economy. As rural kebele of the zone where subsistence farming is common, off-farm activities serve as an alternative outlet to cope with unexpected income shortfalls. (Ibid)

Sport activities such as competitive sport: athletics, volleyball, football, and Cultural sports: genna, gebeta, korbo and so on, are seasonally undertaken, and Hence, not be adequate to lead policy makers to design nationwide policies in relation to sport participation. However, it is expected that important information will be generated that can be used by several stakeholders.

In the woreda, most sports are competitive: team against team, player against player. A well-structured and organized sports program can provide many benefits and positive experiences for young athletes. When done correctly and with the athlete's well-being in mind, organized sports can play an important role in a young person's life.

Benefits and advantages of youth sports participation include: enjoyment which is any form of regular exercise must be enjoyable, or there is a good chance it will not remain regular for very long. That is one of the primary reasons that so many adults quickly break their New Year's resolutions to become more physically active. If young athletes enjoy the sport they are participating in, chances are that they will continue to stay active and come back year after year, and the second advantage is structure in which participating in an organized youth sport adds structure and direction to physical activity, which is another key element for consistency. If the athletes are informed when, where, and how often practice will be conducted, the exercise is already planned for them. All they have to do is show up and play. Opportunity to Socialize is another advantage of youth sports participation that is both children and adults generally have more fun when exercising with a group of friends or teammates. Not only will kids enjoy getting together with their friends for practice and games, but they also will learn how to cooperate and compete fairly. In addition learning life skills is benefit to youth becoming skilled in a particular activity can promote participation and increase enjoyment. Young athletes should be encouraged to learn sport-specific skills and receive positive feedback for their efforts. Sports such as swimming, tennis, soccer, provide regular physical activity for a

lifetime. Also improved health can be included as benefit of youth sports participation as young people are built to move, so try to choose a sport or activity that achieves that objective. The coach plays an important role in organizing a practice where everyone is involved and moving. Sports such as soccer, basketball, volleyball, and athletics can provide children with an excellent aerobic workout by strengthening muscles, and burning lots of calories in the process.

## **1.2. Statement of the problem**

Participation of a community in sport activities should be considered as part of development in all aspects as mentally and physically healthy citizens are productive and thus social, economic and cultural advancement can be attained. There is a strong tendency in our society to view participation in sports in the most favorable light. Children are encouraged to participate in organized youth sports programs because they are thought to promote such fundamental values as character, teamwork, determination and commitment.

The researcher still believe that youth sports programs can do a great deal of good for children and for families. There are many positive aspects of organized sports for children.

But if we are to improve the programs we offer to our children, we need to acknowledge and confront the problems. Not only do we need to understand that youth sports are not just "games for kids," but we also need to understand the important roles they play in our society and the powerful psychological pressures they exert on children, families, and communities. We need to realize that youth sports programs are for adults as much as children - perhaps more so. Until we recognize this fact, we will not be able to organize programs that meet the needs of these involved adults and best meet the children's needs.

Therefore, in connection with the above mentioned problems, the summaries of the research questions of the study are the following:-

1. What are the reasons for participation and nonparticipation in sport activities in the area?
2. What are the benefits of participation in sport activities in the study area?

3. What should be contributed by the community, government and other stakeholders to enhance participation?

### **1.3. Objectives of the study**

#### **1.3.1. General objective**

The objective of the study was to explore the participation of the community in sport activities in the stated area.

#### **1.3.2. Specific objective**

Specifically this study, tried to achieve the following objectives:

- To survey the study area's participation experiences of sport and physical activity, and the availability of infrastructures.
- To examine reasons for participation in sport and physical activity.
- To describe types of sport activities in the study area.

#### **1.4. Significance of the study**

Although this study was conducted for the partial fulfillment of MSC in Sport science, the study is hoped to have some relevance to society, any research may have its own importance no matter how it is conducted at macro & micro levels.

Though this study was at micro level, it is hoped that it will be helpful for Sport professionals, development agents, other interested researchers and community of the study area. The findings of this study will provide a better understanding and awareness on effects of sport participation on households' livelihood, and also will contribute the first initiative in preparing a research on related problems of rural people as baseline study. The study may also, enable the regional government to focus on enhancing participation of major groups with important rural training needs. The findings of this study will provide a better understanding and awareness on the current institutional and socio-cultural factors, which affect participation in Kebeles of Bensa wereda. The way to interrelate effects of sport participation is challenging area in rural development policy formulation in developing countries. This study may indicate areas of intervention to address such problems.

### **1.5. Delimitation (scope) of the study**

This study was delimited to Bensa wereda out of twenty two rural weredas of Sidama zone, SNNPR. Twenty from each three kebeles, households found in this kebeles, and twenty from each two secondary schools were included.

### **1.6. Limitation of the study**

The limiting factors that were constrained in depth study of the topic under investigation include;

- Absence of documents and research works (reference materials) on the topic in the study area.
- Financial and time shortage.
- The reluctance of community members to give correct information fearing financial or material contribution and other government obligations are inevitable.

### **1.7. Definition of terms**

- **Community:** a group or network of personal who are connected of each other by durable social relationships that extend beyond immediate genealogical ties and who mutually define that relationship important to their social identify and social practice.
- **Participation:** the fact of taking part as in some action or attempt
- **Recreation:** is an activity of leisure, leisure being discretionary time
- **Fitness:** is a general state of health and well being or specifically s the ability to perform aspects of or occupations .
- **Head of household:** a status held by the person in a house who is running the hose hold and looking after a qualified dependent.

## **1.8. Organization of the study**

This paper is organized into five chapters. Chapter one introduces the background of the study, statement of the problem, the objective of the study, scope and limitation of the study, significance of the study. Chapter two describes the review of literature that discusses issues concerning related topics by the prominent authors from the experience of overseas and our country's point of view. The third chapter deals with the Methodology of the study, the fourth chapter deals with Data presentation and interpretation of descriptive findings. Lastly, chapter five the paper presents Summery, conclusions and Recommendations.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

In this chapter books, journals, thesis (published, unpublished) websites which are related to the problem area are reviewed.

#### **2.1. Defining community participation**

According to Midgley et al (1986: 23) the notion of popular participation and that of community participation are interlinked. The former is concerned with broad issues of social development and the creation of opportunities for the involvement of people in the political, economic and social life of a nation, 'the latter connotes the direct involvement of ordinary people in local affairs'. One United Nations document (1981: 5) defined community participation as:

The creation of opportunities to enable all members of a community to actively contribute to and influence the development process and to share equitably in the fruits of development.

This is a very general definition and raises as many questions as it answers. As with other traditions of community intervention the theoretical base for the work is relatively patchy (Abbott, 1996). There is material around the context and the specific problems within different societies; and there is a longstanding tradition of writing around political theory. However, much of what is written around process remains at the level of 'practice wisdom' and is not worked into a wider ranging framework.

To some it may sound obvious, but we do need to spell it out. Community participation concerns the engagement of individuals and communities in decisions about things that affect their lives. Sometimes people do not want to be involved in decision making, but it is our view that everyone should have the opportunity to do so.

Community participation is not the same as consultation. Many organisations say that they have a community participation strategy when they mean that they have a consultation strategy. One of the reasons for this audit is to expose issues like this.

Community participation means that communities are playing an active part and have a significant degree of power and influence. The starting point for our work has been recognition of the diverse and elaborate nature of communities and the need for an approach which allows us to assess progress from very different starting points. Community participation is both a process and an outcome. Change must be seen to be taking place and benefits must be felt, but for this change to be long lasting it has to be underpinned with learning and commitment. The following are issues which we felt we needed to be aware of in constructing this framework: An understanding of the composition, needs, priorities, tensions, strengths and existing networks of communities. The need for partnership working and resourcing of participation at all stages of the regeneration process.

Sensitivity around accountability and representative structures – building effective structures and infrastructures which strengthen communities rather than divide them. The need for a range of wider (formal and informal) ways in which people can participate in debate and discussion, creating some local ownership and control. The need for clarity and recognition of influence – evidence that communities have been heard, that decisions have been informed by communities.

Recognition that people participate from a variety of different starting points and cultural experience and that this has implications for how people learn and contribute.(Danny,2004)

In recent years there have been some useful developments in thinking around the notion of community participation. This has both involved a critique of 'participatory techniques' when used in the service of unjust and often illegitimate interests (Cooke and Kothari, 2001) and some more optimistic explorations of participatory approaches that link into more transformational political forms (Hickey and Mohan, 2004). In many respects, as various contributors to Cooke and Kothari (2001) underline, it is still necessary to approach state-sponsored community participation initiatives with some care. Claims to participation can often be little more than the wish to consult within a narrow policy framework. There can be a sharp contrast with the level of involvement expected within more associational forms of democracy or even those approaches concerned with the cultivation of social capital. There is certainly a gap between such approaches and what

can be seen in some of the more rigorous developments in participatory governance (Hickey and Mohan, 2004).

Influenced by the political debates of the late 1960s more radical approaches to community work became influential. 'Instead of seeking to help deprived communities to improve their social and environmental circumstances, the new community work activists urged that people take direct political action to demand changes and improvements' (Midgley et al 1986: 20).

Saul Alinsky (1946; 1971) - was especially influential. He had a history of mobilizing and organizing grass roots campaigns particularly in the district known as the Back of the Yards in Chicago (the site of Upton Sinclair's famous novel *The Jungle*). He caught many people's imaginations through his evident commitment and experience, and his ability to articulate his thoughts in catchy phrases:

Alinsky seemed to offer a model for community action (as against organization or development). Major state programmes such as the War on Poverty in the United States of America and the Urban Programme in the United Kingdom also underlined a growing emphasis on economic and structural factors in matters more often associated with individual 'shortcomings'.

The model of practice most commonly associated with this North American approach to community organizing posited three distinct 'types' of work. Here the work of Jack Rothman (1968) was of special importance.

These elements are drawn in a fairly extreme way. There is considerable overlap between the elements - but the focus on difference is useful in that it points attention to dimensions such as process, the role of the plan, and the tension between the state and dominant groups and those who believe themselves to be excluded.

In the late 1960s there was a series of debates around 'participation' (Pateman, 1970). While 'participation' may be a vague term its advocates often rely on two key arguments about its value. It makes for justice in decision-making - people have some say in, and influence on, collective decisions has an educative value. Through participation people learn (Beetham, 1992).

The definitions presented by various theorists have been presented in an effort to give a comprehensive overview of the term. Following closely the definition of community participation, are also discussed critical issues related to it such as the stages and levels of participation and the need for it. Participation does not necessarily imply self-help home building by undernourished and over-worked people without credit, with inadequate tools and poor materials. The discussion of community participation in architecture, first initiated in the 1960s, became a buzzword in mid-1970s after the sites and services housing schemes received funding and acceptance by the World Bank in the developing countries (Hamdi, Housing, 1976). However, it is important to understand the meaning of community participation as it has been misused and abused in many projects claiming to have community participation as a project component. First understanding the meanings of the words 'community' and 'participation' individually can best explain the term 'community participation'. Nick Wates defines the word community in *The Community Planning Handbook*, as "a group of people sharing common interests and living within a geographically defined area". Nabeel Hamdi in his book (with Reinhard Goethert), *Action Planning for Cities: A Guide to Community Practice*, points out that the term community has both "social and spatial dimensions" and that generally the people within a community come together to achieve a common objective, even if they have certain differences (Hamdi, Action 67). The concept of a community works on the age old principles of 'unity is strength' and 'united we stand'. A group of people always has advantage over a single individual in getting his or her voice heard, especially in the case of have-nots of the society. Charles Abrams in his book, *The Language of Cities: A Glossary of Terms* defines community as, "that mythical state of social wholeness in which each member has his place and in which life is regulated by cooperation rather than by competition and conflict".

It is clear that a community generally has two certain elements, that is, physical boundaries and social interests common among the people. On the other hand, a community sometimes may have one element dominating the other, for example, a community of students or a community of artists generally need not belong to the same physical boundaries. In this case, they come together on certain ideological grounds. Nabeel Hamdi presents an opposing view that the communities are not necessarily always

organized and cohesive and sometimes lack the “sense of community” and “social identity” (Hamdi, Action 67). He explains that for community participatory projects, it is not a must to have an already well organized community right from the beginning but the sense of community can be achieved during the course of the project, which can also be one of the objectives of including community participation in development projects (Hamdi, Action 67). Charles Abrams gives a good example of the sense of community in the case of people living in a squatter settlement. These squatters, living within the confines of the same settlement, have common objectives and work together to protect and legalize their dwellings. Their survival against the authorities rests upon cooperation among them and hence, the sense of community is strengthened by their common goals. Compare this with the generally nonexistent sense of community among the residents of a posh neighborhood with the best physical form of housing (Abrams, Language, 2003). The word participation can be defined as the “act of being involved in something”(Wates, Handbook 1994).

According to N.J Habraken, participation has two definitions with opposite meanings. Participation can either represent assigning certain decisive roles to the users, where they share the decision-making responsibility with the professionals. The other type of participation is where there is no shift of responsibilities between the users and professionals but instead only the opinion of the user is considered while making decisions (Habraken,“Towards”). Community participation means some form of involvement of people, with similar needs and goals, in decisions affecting their lives. Charles Abrams defines community participation as, “the theory that the local community should be given an active role in programs and improvements directly affecting it”.

It is only rational to give control of affairs and decisions to people most affected by them. Besides, since no government or authority has the means to solve all the public problems adequately, it is necessary to involve people in matters that affect them (Abrams, Language 63). However, delegating powers to people is not an easy task and involves great inquiry into the change in the attitudes of the authorities and professionals, which is addressed in the next section. Nabeel Hamdi defines community participation as a powerful idea which “refers to the process by which professionals, families, community groups, government officials, and others get together to work something out, preferably

in a formal or informal partnership” (Hamdi, Housing). He explains that community participation was initially an outcome of the public pressure demanding “environmental justice” (Hamdi, Housing, 1976).

The advocates of community participation believe that it brings many lasting benefits to people instead of only a means of getting things done. Sherry R. Arnstein associates citizen participation with citizen power and control as, “the redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens, presently excluded from the political and economic processes, to be deliberately included in the future”. Christopher Alexander explains that participation is “inherently good” and that it brings people together in creating and making decisions about their environment. Since people are actively involved in the process, Alexander argues that participation helps promote sense of ownership and control among the people.

### **2.1.1. Community participation Approaches**

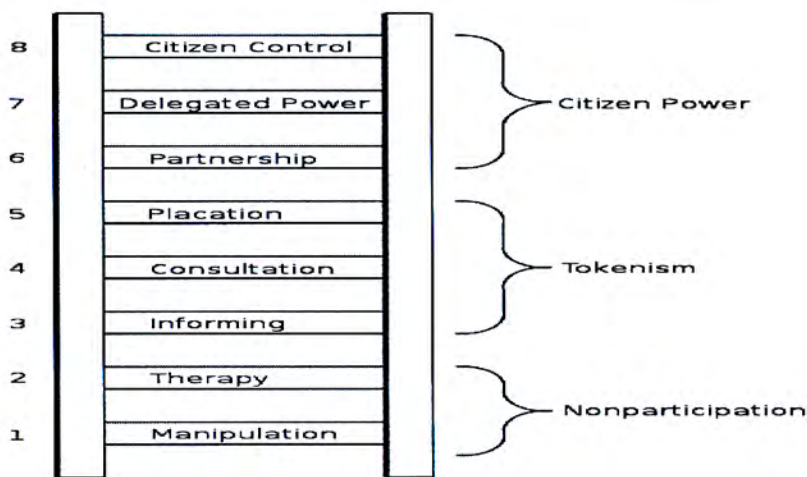
#### **A. Stages and Levels Approaches**

In order to expand the discussion of community participation further, it is important to develop an understanding of the different phases or stages of the housing process. John F.C. Turner divides the process into three basic components; planning, construction and management. Nabeel Hamdi adds two more stages to the overall process; initiation, planning, design, implementation and maintenance. Initiation is the first stage of the process where the project goals and scope are defined. The planning stage involves working out the project details, budgeting and resource identification. In the design stage, the details are further developed, with the actual execution of the project in the implementation or construction phase. The maintenance or management stage is a long-term process and involves the upkeep of the project. The involvement of communities at different stages of the project determines the level of participation in projects. Probably the best way to explain different levels of participation in terms of community involvement in various stages of the projects is by understanding what Sherry R. Arnstein calls “A Ladder of Citizen Participation,” which she introduced in an article published in 1969 in the Journal of the American Planning Association. Arnstein explains that this classification is necessary to unveil the manipulation of people in the garb of community

participation projects by professionals and policyholders. The ladder has eight rungs each corresponding to a different level of participation, that is, manipulation, therapy, informing, consultation, placation, partnership, delegated power and citizen control.

The rungs at the bottom of the ladder are the ones with least citizen participation or “nonparticipation” and include Manipulation and Therapy. Informing, consultation and placation occupy the middle rungs of the ladder and border between manipulation at the bottom and citizen control at the top and is termed as “tokenism” where the people are allowed to participate only to the extent of expressing their views but have no real say that matters. The last three rungs, partnership, delegated power and finally citizen control at the top of the ladder, are termed equivalent to “citizen power” and this is where true and meaningful participation takes place. This categorization of the various types of people involvement is extremely crucial in clarifying the confusion between “non-participation” and true “citizen power” and to identify the real motives behind participatory projects, which are often used by critics as shortcomings of the concept of community participation.

Fig1, *Eight Rungs on the Ladder of Citizen Participation*.

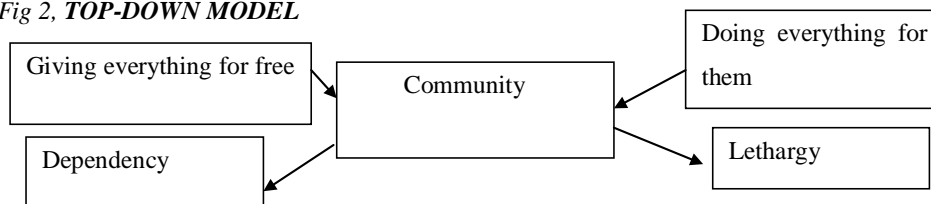


*Eight Rungs on the Ladder of Citizen Participation illustration from Sherry R. Arnstein, 1969: 217*

## B. Top-Down Versus Bottom-Up Approaches

Broadly speaking, community participation can be of two types; in the form of top-down programs or bottom-up initiatives (Moser, Community 1991). These two processes are the exact opposites of each other and differ on the basis of whether governments/implementing agencies or the communities have the overall control of the program. John F.C. Turner elaborates the top-down and bottom-up approaches by comparing them with the 'heteronomous housing systems' and the 'autonomous housing systems' respectively. where the difference between the two systems is in the decision-making power of different actors at different stages of the housing process. In the case of the heteronomous system, John F.C. Turner explains that the government decides and provides housing for the people in a top-down process while the autonomous system follows a bottom-up approach and has different networks of actors working alongside in different relationships. B.L.C. Johnson in his book, Development in South Asia, explains the topdown and bottom-up developmental approaches using a simple example of the construction of a dam and the improved agricultural production as a result . In most cases, the dam construction is a top-down development process where all the decisions are made by the government or other agencies without seeking the consent of the people. Johnson explains that there can be a bottom-up development as well where the people may decide to adopt modern agricultural technologies to improve the overall production. Now these are two different kinds of developments, one is imposed while the other is self-chosen by the people. Johnson points out that there can sometimes be an overlap between top-down and bottom-up development, in this case, the government's decision to improve the water supply system overlaps with the people's decision to adopt new technology.

Fig 2, **TOP-DOWN MODEL**

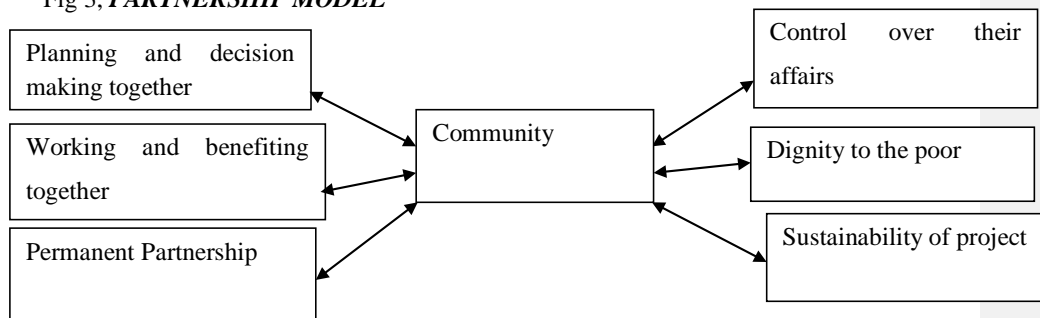


*Top-down Model, illustration by G. Narayana Reddy, 2002: 6.*

### C. The Partnership Approach

C.O.N. Moser explains in *Community Participation in Urban Projects in the Third World*, that by the end of the 1960s, bottom-up community participation initiatives started to surface along with top-down participation programs in the form of squatter settlements around the world. These bottom-up initiatives of the community in order to house themselves resulted after the failures of top-down housing projects in different cities of the world and were initially met with resistance by governments. However, Moser explains that by the 1970s, many Third World governments and donor agencies realized the potential of these community-based initiatives which resulted in a major change of approach in housing in the form of upgrading and sites and services projects. G. Narayana Reddy in his book *Empowering Communities through Participatory Methods*, explains that in the top-down model of participation, the governments decide and provide for the communities which develops a sense of dependency and lethargy among the people. He presents an alternative to the top-down model in the form of a “partnership model” where the governments and communities work together in planning and decision-making with long-lasting results. This discussion gives rise to the question related to the objective that community participation is meant to achieve. C.O.N. Moser explains the concept of Participation as a ‘means’ and as an ‘end’ in development projects, Where participation is interpreted as a means it generally becomes a form of mobilization to get things done. Where participation is identified as an end the objective is not a fixed quantifiable development goal but a process whose outcome is an increasingly ‘meaningful’ participation in the development process.

Fig 3, **PARTNERSHIP MODEL**



*Partnership Model from G. Narayana Reddy, 2002: 6.*

Moser elaborates the need of “identification of the process whereby participation as giving everything for frees doing everything for community. Dependency Lethargy from the above discussion it can be concluded that community participation can be used to achieve material benefits in the form of pointed development projects (sewerage, water supply delivery, etc) or can lead to the social development of the people (empowerment, independence, etc). In the current context of maximizing opportunities for community development, it is important that participation be used as a tool for achieving something more meaningful than mere physical benefits.

Moser elaborates the need of “identification of the process whereby participation as a means has the capacity to develop into participation as an end” (Moser, Community However, in addition to identifying the effectiveness of community participation, it is equally important to recognize some of the problems involved in participatory development approaches. Participation employed as an end in development projects is a time-consuming process and since time is directly proportional to money in such situations, it is quite difficult to justify such an approach due to high expenditures. Besides, there is a fear among governments of uncontrolled empowerment of people and lack of trust in their ability to make sensible decisions, which prevents the governments to change their paternalistic approach in decision-making.

The only way that such issues against participation can be resolved is by looking at participation from a broader perspective and by weighing its benefits versus limitations. It is true that it would take more time for a fully participatory project to accomplish its goals but the end result in the form of community empowerment will also go a long way. Social benefits are far superior to physical benefits and a realization has to be made on part of the implementing agencies that the empowerment of people is necessary for enabling people to become productive citizens. The authorities need to change their attitude towards people, on one hand while on the other hand; the people need to be guided for participation and making informed decisions. Professionals such as the architects and planners can perform a crucial role here and act as mediators and teachers in community-based projects.

#### **D. A social–ecological model Approach**

A social–ecological model of health was adapted and used as an organizing framework to synthesize the literature. It is concluded that socio-ecological models can be valuable tools for understanding and promoting issues related to physical activity engagement for a range of populations but they may require complementary critical insights, including those from Indigenous perspectives. Productive theoretical spaces where Western and Indigenous knowledge's come together can assist health educators to consider the complexity and diversity of Indigenous people's lived experiences when planning and implementing programs.

Australia, the term Indigenous incorporates Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. The accepted definition of an Australian Aboriginal person is social more than racial. An Aboriginal person is defined as a person who is a descendant of an Indigenous inhabitant of Australia, identifies as an Aboriginal person and is recognized as Aboriginal by members of the community in which she or he lives. This gap is narrowing in the United States, Canada and New Zealand, but in Australia, the gap in health indicators such as life expectancy continues to widen .

Indigenous Australians experience a greater burden of disease, particularly for chronic illnesses such as diabetes, respiratory conditions, circulatory diseases and musculoskeletal conditions. Physical activity is recognized as an important contributor to health for all people and is believed to have benefits in improving mental and skeletal health and providing protection from high blood pressure, overweight and obesity, type 2 diabetes and a range of health risk behaviors such as smoking and alcohol intake.

Despite the potential for physical activity to contribute to the health of Indigenous Australians, in 2003, physical inactivity was cited as the third leading cause of the burden of disease in this population (Vos et al. 2007). Much of the literature examining physical activity among the Indigenous peoples of North America, New Zealand and Australia has attempted to identify determinants, patterns and levels of physical activity engagement of Indigenous people from an epidemiological perspective. Some of these studies have attempted to contextualize data collection instruments for Indigenous populations for their study of Kanien'keha'ka children in Canada) but to date there is little qualitative

research to complement the epidemiological studies. The few studies that have sought to gain the perspectives of Indigenous peoples suggest that a broader view of their lived experiences is needed given that the place of physical activity in their lives is embedded in their social and cultural practices.

Further, while many countries have sought to interpolate policies addressing community health or school curricula with Indigenous perspectives, Indigenous peoples still sense a marginalization of their ways of knowing and being.

Hart has suggested that being aware that we are all positioned as subjects within research is one way in which we can de-privilege Western epistemologies and make them more visible rather than invisible and 'normal'. However, being sensitive to issues of Indigenous knowledge can result in a dilemma for the non-Indigenous health educator. How does one take knowledge gained through white Western ways of knowing and apply it in Indigenous contexts appropriately? Is this possible or justified? In Australia, and particularly in Queensland where the authors reside, there is an absence of any documented cohesive approach to the research or promotion of physical activity from an Indigenous standpoint. While the authors recognize there are guiding principles for health promotion advocated by Indigenous health organizations and individuals, there is also a tension with appropriating this knowledge into white Western ways. This paper therefore borrows from Nakata's concept of 'the cultural interface' in recognizing that there are productive theoretical spaces where Western knowledge and traditional and contemporary Indigenous knowledges can come together in useful and informative ways. In doing so, literature is presented using a conceptual framework accepted in Western science, but where possible, adapted using an 'Aboriginal lens'.

Researchers have recognized the complex interrelated nature of identifying the factors or conditions that shape engagement in physical activity. Drawing on health behavior models, many researchers across different disciplines have proposed the use of multi-level approaches that consider organizational, environmental and individual factors that may impact on health behaviors, such as physical activity engagement. These ecological and social-ecological models are conceptual frameworks that recognize the way in which individual behavior is affected by and also affects the environment. Generally, these

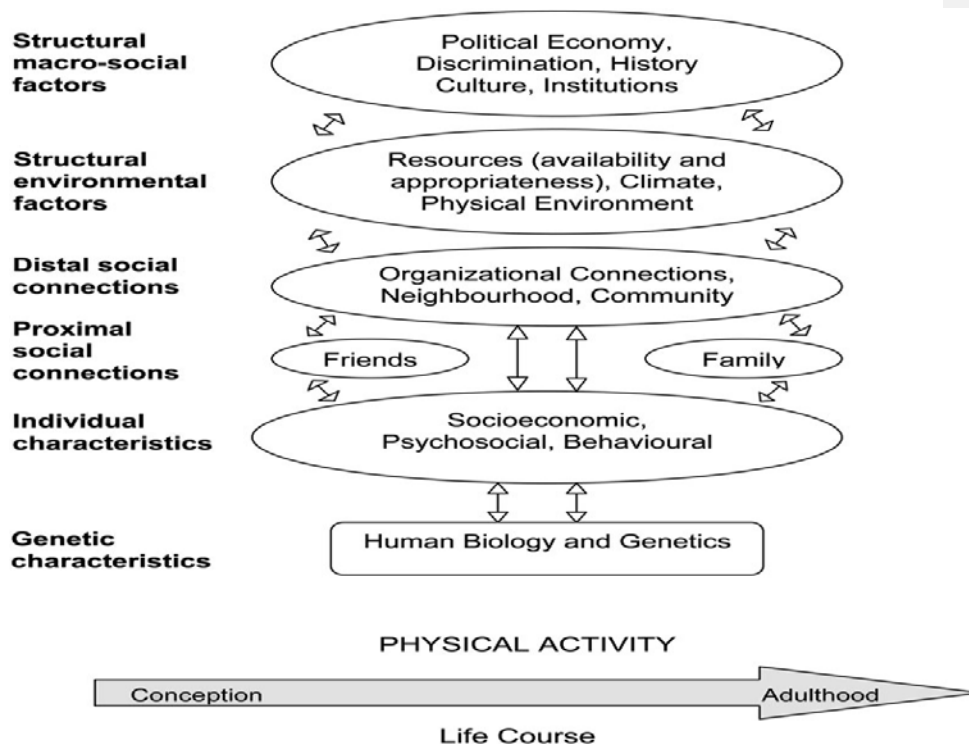
models approach physical activity engagement through consideration of intrapersonal, social–environmental and physical environment factors. Intrapersonal factors may include demographics ,biology, behavior and beliefs. Social– environmental factors may incorporate social support, social climate, culture, policies governing incentives for physical activity and policies governing resources and infrastructure related to physical activity. Physical environment factors are divided into the natural environment such as the weather and geography and the constructed environment including architecture, transport, recreation infrastructure and the urban/suburban environment. One such model, that of Lynch’s social–ecological model of health emerged from social epidemiology and places an emphasis on the broader social factors that impact health before considering the individual within that context.

While it is acknowledged that there are always limitations of these types of conceptual frameworks in capturing the complexity of associations, Lynch’s model has been used by several authors to organize ideas about the various factors impacting both Indigenous and children’s health behaviors and the relationships between these factors. For instance, Carson et al. used Lynch’s model to emphasize the need for a multi-level and multi-time point approach to the social determinants of the health of Indigenous Australians. In reviewing the literature on physical activity among Indigenous Australians, this paper will also use Lynch’s social–ecological model as an organizing framework to synthesize the research relating to physical activity of Indigenous populations using the Indigenous Australian experience. The use of a social–ecological model to help frame the literature is a somewhat different, though generative, application of this tool. Two minor modifications have been made to the model for the purposes of this paper. First, two-way arrows have been added in order to signify the ways in which the perspectives and strengths of Indigenous young people themselves can inform more structural and macro-social levels of physical activity determinants. This is in keeping with the intent of ecological models to highlight the way in which individual behavior is influenced by and influences the environment.

Second, Lynch does not identify structural environmental factors in his model but they have been added in this paper as they are often represented in other social–ecological models and are recognized as important when considering physical activity participation

and health education with Indigenous people. Following the overview of the physical activity literature, gaps in current knowledge as well as several questions and critiques of the ways in which Indigenous Australians are often positioned will be discussed.. Additionally, it aims to challenge some of the ‘taken-for-granted’ ways of thinking about promoting or researching physical activity with endogenous Australians

*Fig 4, A social - ecological model*



*Adapted social-ecological model of determinants of physical activity (from Lynch*

## **2.2. Benefits of Community Participation in Sports**

It is generally accepted that physical activity confers benefits to psychosocial health, functional ability and general quality of life and has been proven to reduce the risk of coronary heart disease and some cancers. Here, physical activity refers to ‘any bodily movement produced by skeletal muscles that results in energy expenditure’. (Sport England, 2003).

Conditions associated with physical inactivity include obesity, hypertension, diabetes, back pain, poor joint mobility and psychosocial problems. Physical inactivity is a major public health challenge in the developed world and is recognized as a global epidemic. Within the United States, the rate of childhood obesity is expected to reach 40% in the next two decades and Type 2 diabetes is expected to affect 300 million people worldwide within the same time. The UK government has set a target for ‘70% of the population to be reasonably active (for example 30 minutes of moderate exercise five times a week) by 2020’. This target could be described as ambitious; only 37% of men and 24% of women in the United Kingdom currently meet this benchmark. The Health Survey for England (HSE) found that the number of physically inactive people (less than one occasion of 30-min activity per week) was increasing and that this trend was consistent for both genders and across all age groups. Conventionally, sport and forms of physical activity such as aerobics, running or gym work have been the focus of efforts to increase population activity levels. The HSE measure includes activities, such as gardening and housework, which are not traditionally considered as physical activity. Sport England found that in the 10-year period between 1987 and 1996 participation in traditional types of sport and physical activity stagnated or fell in all groups other than the 60- to 69-year old age group. This trend was socially patterned by gender, socio-economic status, social class and ethnicity. There are many broad influences upon physical activity behavior including intra-personal, social, environmental factors and these determinants vary across the life course. Ambitious national targets and increased funding of community sport and physical activity projects (such as the Sports Hub in Regent’s Park, London) show that sport and physical activity is gaining social, political and health policy importance. The increased interest in physical activity is welcome, but

the trend data hints that current interventions to promote sport and physical activity are inadequate. Further, it questions whether the evidence base supporting physical activity policy provides an adequate understanding of the reasons for participation or non-participation in physical activity. Historically, research into determinants of sport and physical activity participation has tended to adopt quantitative methods, which undertake cross-sectional surveys of pre-determined questions on individual's knowledge, attitudes and beliefs about sport and physical activity. For example, the HSE asks adults about activity in five domains: activity at work, activity at home (e.g. housework, gardening, do it yourself maintenance (DIY)), walks of >15 min and sports and exercise activities. (Sport England, 2003)

Studies such as these can successfully assess the direction and strength of trends in participation but are unable to explain how children and adults adopt, maintain or cease to participate in sport and physical activity throughout their lives. An alternative approach is required which is sensitive to the contextual, social, economic and cultural factors which influence participation in physical activity. Qualitative methods offer this in-depth insight into individuals' experiences and perceptions of the motives and barriers to participation in sport and physical activity and are recognized as increasingly important in developing the evidence base for public health. Although qualitative research is a blanket term for a wide range of approaches, this type of research typically aims to understand the meaning of individual experience within social context. The data for qualitative studies often come from repeated interviews or focus groups, are generally more in-depth and have fewer participants than quantitative research. Additionally, the inductive nature of qualitative research allows for theory to emerge from the lived experiences of research participants rather than the pre-determined hypotheses testing of quantitative approaches. Thomas and Nelson describe qualitative methods as the 'new kid on the block' in sport and physical activity research and a small body of qualitative research on sport and physical activity in the United Kingdom is known to exist. This paper aims to systematically examine published and unpublished qualitative research studies which have examined UK children's and adults' reasons for participation and non-participation in sport and physical activity. (Ibid)

As children enter middle childhood, they spend less time in unstructured free play and more time in structured activities, such as school- or church-sponsored activities and organized sports practices or competitions (Hofferth & Sandberg, 2001). In the last decade, the United States has seen a dramatic rise in the number of children involved in organized sports, especially girls. Approximately 46 million children and adolescents participate in some type of organized sport (Griffin, 1998). Despite the increase in the number of children involved, not all children participate to the same extent. For example, as girls move into adolescence, their participation typically declines. Low-income children spend less time in organized sports than middle class children often due to the expenses involved.(L.B.Blume,2010).

A variety of physical and psychological benefits may result from sports participation, the multiple physical benefits of systematic exercise outlined in the previous section of this chapter also apply to children who participate in organized sports. In addition, individual athletes (e.g., swimmers, runners, or skiers) learn the value of practice, self-discipline, and time and effort commitments. They also may gain feelings of competency and self-worth, have higher levels of self-esteem, and report enjoying themselves (Pugh, Wolff, DeFrancesco, Gilley, & Heitman, 2000). Participating in a sport increases skill building and, in many peer groups, is a characteristic of popularity and status among peers. As a member of a team (e.g., soccer, baseball, football)—in addition to the advantages gained from individual participation—children learn about cooperation, perspective taking, and the benefits of teamwork. They also have opportunities to spend time with friends or to make new friends (Ewing, Gano- Overway, Branta, & Seefeldt, 2002). Studies show that if children enjoy their participation, they are much more likely to stay involved and to continue this activity for longer periods of time sometimes into adulthood (Perkins, Jacobs, Barber, & Eccles, 2004; Thompson, Humbert, & Mirwald,2003).

Disadvantages of participating in organized sports include acute injuries or less often permanent injuries to vulnerable bones and joints (Maffulli, Baxter-Jones, & Grieve, 2005).

Also, children may be encouraged to continue to play or compete in less-than-favorable weather conditions. Describe how children's bodies heat and cool themselves differently

from adults' and, if not properly monitored, how children could experience stress resulting in illness or death.

Some developmentalists worry that time spent in organized sports may reduce the amount of time spent in unstructured free play, which encourages imagination and self-motivation. Others suggest that participation in organized sports encourages a mindset of competition and winning. A survey of 10,000 youth athletes found that children stopped playing a sport due to lack of interest, lack of fun, poor coaching, and an overemphasis on winning. Their main sources of stress were criticisms (i.e., "being yelled at") from coaches, parents, fans, and teammates as well as performing poorly in competition (Ewing & Seefeldt, 1990).

Sport benefits individuals and society. It is an important part of the national economy, contributing significantly in terms of spending, economic activity (measured using Gross Value Added) and employment. For those who participated there are health and well-being (or happiness) impacts. The 2012 Olympic and Paralympics Games showcased the wide-ranging positive effects that watching sport can bring. However, few studies in the past have sought to assess the full economic benefits of sport. This work presents the first comprehensive assessment of the economic impact (in relation to the real world economy) and economic value (in terms of welfare or utility) of sport in England. It shows that sport has very substantial benefits.

Based on the National Accounts definition of sport and taking into account wider sport-related activity such as television/satellite broadcasting and sports gambling, in 2010 sport is estimated to have generated GVA of £20.3 billion – 1.9% of the England total. That places sport within the top 15 industry sectors in England. It makes a greater contribution to the economy than sale and repair of motor vehicles, insurance, telecoms services, legal services and accounting. As part of the analysis further economic modeling has been undertaken to identify how much of the total economic impact is accounted for by participation in sport and how much by the consumption of sport. Participation in sport (i.e. playing sport and related expenditure) is estimated to be responsible for some 58% of sports related with consumption-related activity (i.e. watching sport, gambling and consumption of sportswear and equipment for recreational

use) responsible for 42%. In terms of employment, sport is estimated to support over 440,000 full-time equivalent jobs. 2.3% of all jobs in England. Participation in sport accounts for 65% of total sports related employment, with consumption of sport responsible for 35%.

The economic impact of sport in terms of employment is substantial. However, these measures only capture part of its economic value.

For those who participate in sport there are health and well-being (or happiness) impacts, while those who watch sport can derive beneficial psychological effects. The 2012 Olympic and Paralympics Games showcased the wide-ranging positive effects that watching sport can have. Sport has a range of wider benefits to individuals and to society as a whole. Both consumption of and participation in sport can result in significant wider impacts. (DCMS, 2013).

The well-being or happiness of individuals through participating in sport research reported by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS, 2013) has identified the substantial benefit that participating in sport has for the individual concerned in terms of their well-being or happiness. The benefit to individuals from improved health (both physical and mental) and, as a result of a healthier population, reduced costs to the National Health Service. Here again research has been undertaken to value the healthcare costs saved and the total economic value (a broader measure of the economic value of the health benefits). The annual values of health benefits generated by participation in sport are estimated to be £1.7 billion in terms of savings in healthcare costs and £11.2 billion in total economic value in 2011-2012. The improved educational attainment of those that participate in sport. Participation in sport can increase student's motivation, improve their social relations with peers and persons in authority and can impact positively on self-discipline, time management and self esteem. The contribution sport can make to reducing youth crime. Participation in sport can contribute towards reducing crime and anti-social behavior, particularly amongst young people. The net impact of sport on the environment. Sport can, for example, encourage more walking and cycling, which can reduce emissions and congestion, although this would be counterbalanced by those attending sports events. The use of sport-related projects to stimulate regeneration and

community development –this can be as a result of a major commercial sport project or more local community sport activities. The benefits to the individual and to society more generally through volunteering. Voluntary work contributes to the wider charitable objectives of sports organizations the volunteers themselves derive a range of benefits from the experience and satisfaction of volunteering. The estimated economic value of sport-related volunteering was £2.7 billion in 2010/11. (IBID)

The well-being or happiness of individuals through spectating/viewing sport. National pride and a feel good factor through sporting success/achievement. There is a substantial body of evidence illustrating the wider benefits that can be generated through sport, as outlined by the DCMS's CASE programme and Sport England's Value of Sport monitor. Some of these benefits can be readily quantified (such as health). For other benefits, the evidence is of a qualitative nature, but nevertheless still highlights the important role of sport.

The link between physical activity and academic achievement is of increasing interest in the field of education and sport. Sport and physical activity participation are generally promoted for their positive impact on children's physical and mental health. However, increased participation in sport and other forms of physical activity are also thought to lead to enhancement of cognitive functioning (information processing), memory, concentration, behavior and academic achievement for children. Unfortunately, with increasing pressure on schools to ensure children achieve academic success, and the new practice of publicized average grade comparison between schools, physical activity classes (such as physical education and sport) are increasingly being pushed down the curriculum priority list. Of concern, it appears that time spent in physical activity during the school day is diminishing; at some schools the average moderate to vigorous physical activity during the class has been reported as being less than 10 minutes daily. Removing or reducing physical activity classes from the school day may be detrimental to children's physical and mental health as research indicates that school day physical activity is associated with total daily physical activity.

The vast majority of research indicates that replacing academic learning sessions with physical activity does not have a detrimental impact on school grades; indeed some

intervention research indicates that increased participation in physical activity leads to enhanced learning and better grades. Evidence also suggests that achieving a threshold amount of physical activity may be necessary to acquire learning benefits, and that participation in vigorous physical activity may further enhance learning. Further to this, there is evidence that there has been a reduction over the years in children's participation in physical activity and organized community sport, and this is particularly evident in Australia. (Karen, 2013)

The relationship between physical activity, fitness and academic achievement; Studies exploring the relationship between physical activity or fitness and academic achievement amongst children and adolescents have been now undertaken in a number of countries and are summarized in the large majority of university-based, internationally published research in this field has found a positive association between children's physical activity participation and academic achievement. Intervention studies, which generally measure baseline academic achievement scores, introduce a physical activity or physical education program and then premeasured scores, have concluded that: a two-year physical activity intervention led to significant improvements in children's maths scores; average academic achievement of children in a case group (who received extra physical education) was significantly higher than children who were in the control group (who did not receive extra physical education) in a second year follow up; greater vigorous physical activity out of school resulted in higher test scores; reading comprehension improved following a 20- minute treadmill walking aerobic activity. Correlation studies, which explored the relationship between either physical activity or fitness and academic achievement retrospectively or prospectively, have found: physical activity was a significant, positive predictor of academic achievement. Body mass index, diet and physical activity explained up to 24% of the variance in academic achievement after controlling for gender, parental education, family structure and absenteeism; there was a significant, positive link between physical activity participation and academic performance; higher physical fitness, physical capacity and physical activity were associated with higher school ratings of scholastic ability; students who reported a greater level of exercise spent more time in sport and achieved higher grade point averages; and greater physical activity level was associated with positive achievement orientation. In

addition to these findings, four intervention studies, one correlation study and one research review highlighted that children can spend less time in academic learning and more time being physically active during the school day, without affecting academic success or progress. This suggests superior learning occurs with greater physical activity participation, supporting the theory that increasing physical activity has a positive impact on learning.(Nick Rowe,2010 ).

However, some studies have failed to find a relationship between physical activity and learning, and one study identified the relationship for girls only. Ideally, an intervention study would add physical activity or sport to the day for an intervention group and maintain a similar amount of academic learning time to those in a control group (for example by adding fitness or sport before school for one group). This would provide a clearer picture as to any improvement in academic grades from increased physical activity. It appears this approach has not yet been used. (Ibid)

The relationship between participation in organized sport and academic achievement, total physical activity participation can also be increased by increasing children's involvement in organized community sport and recreation, and organized community sport and recreation have been indicated as exerting a positive effect on children's academic success and attitude to school. Studies examining the correlation between sport participation and academic success have identified: a significant, positive correlation between sport performance and academic ability; that the frequency and extent of sports participation were significantly greater for students with high self ratings of academic performance; that sports participation of high school children was associated with higher grade point average; that sports team participation and physical activity combined were associated with a higher grade point average of middle school students; and that sport performance was significantly associated with academic ability. ( Karen,2013)

### **2.3. The correlation between the level of economic development and sport performance in developing countries**

A number of publications have attempted to demonstrate that economic determinants of a country's sport performance do really matter. In particular, does the level of economic development explain the number of medals won at Olympic Games? Intuitively, a richer

country with a larger population, better nutritional opportunities, more available sport facilities and more qualified coaches has a higher a priori probability of winning medals than otherwise. In a nutshell, the less developed a country, the lower its (Olympic) sport performance. The front runner studies that go beyond explaining the Olympic performance only by the quality of athletes trace us back to the 1970's (Ball, 1972; Grimes et al. 1974; Levine, 1974).

They examined just one Olympiad, for example Munich 1972. They usually measured Olympic performance with the number of medals won by each country, or with a scoring system based on differential weights for gold, silver and bronze medals. For instance, calculating correlation coefficients, Ball found that the Olympic performance of a country is correlated to various economic, sociological and political variables. This trained of thought was interrupted by Moscow Games in 1980 and Los Angeles 1984, since a number of the best performing countries did not participate, an absence which would have biased the statistical analysis of the relationship between Olympic performance and economic variables.

A second wave of research works recently emerged more focused on establishing a robust relationship between the aggregate Olympic performance of a country over several Games and economic determinants. All studies are based on modern tools of econometric testing and come up with the conclusion that GDP or GDP per capita and population are significant determinants of Olympic performances. Johnson & Ayfer (2000) have worked on post-war summer Games and explained the number of Olympic medals won by GDP per capita, squared GDP per capita, population, and squared population, using successively an ordinary least square, a probit and an ordered probit regression. The study by Andreff (2001) proceeds with an ordered logit model applied first to the performances at Atlanta 1996 and Sydney 2000 summer Games, and then to all winter Games since their inception until Nagano 1998. The country sample is first divided into four classes: LDCs (GDP per capita < \$ 600), middle-income countries ( $\$ 600 < \text{GDP per capita} < \$ 2,000$ ), emerging countries ( $\$ 2,000 < \text{GDP per capita} < \$ 9,000$ ), and developed countries ( $\text{GDP per capita} > \$ 9,000$ ). As regards to the second independent variable, i.e. population, the sample is classified as follows: small countries (less than 2 million inhabitants), middle-sized countries ( $2 \text{ million} < \text{population} < 29 \text{ million}$

inhabitants), large countries (between 29 and 100 million inhabitants), and very large countries (over 100 million inhabitants). Both explanatory variables, GDP per capita and population, are found to be extremely significant in the case of Atlanta and Sydney. Equally significant, but slightly different, are the results for the overall winter Games up to 1998: GDP per capita is more influential than population on the probability of a country to switch to an upper class of medals won. All in all, economic development and population size are major determinants of (Olympic) sport performance.

Bernard & Busse (2003), working with a panel data on the 1960-1996 summer Games, estimate a model which explains with economic variables the ratio between medals won (by a country) and total distributed medals, using probit and tobit regressions. The hypothesis that medal winning should be proportional to population (assuming de facto that athletic talent is randomly distributed) is econometrically rejected. Interestingly, per capita income and population have very similar and significant effects at the margin on the production function of Olympic medals. This suggests that total GDP is the best predictor of national Olympic performance. The model is used to predict the number of medals won by Australia in 2000, which is slightly different from the observed total. The authors guess that forced mobilization of resources by governments can also play a role in medal totals (an argument which probably applies in retrospect to past Soviet and Eastern European Olympic performances). Economic development, assessed by either GDP per capita or total GDP, is an important determinant of a country's international sport performance. If the resources mobilized by the government play a role, this very fact is likely to widen the gap between developed and developing countries even further, in terms of sport performance, since sport budgets are so tiny in the latter.

There are a number of economic concerns as regards to sport (under)development in developing countries, although most issues have remained unheeded until now in the economic literature. The most investigated topic is about the correlation between the level of economic development and sport performance in major events such as the Olympics. However, this is only the top of the iceberg, since the examined correlation is just one piece of the puzzling overall relationship between sport and economic underdevelopment. Very few studies have been carried out on other topics. Another concern has urgently drawn the attention in the past recent years which is the expansion

of player (athlete) moves from the Third World to the European and North American labour markets for talent. Finally, while a hot debate is running about the pros and cons of the American and European economic models of sport organisation, one can wonder of a specific sport model in developing countries. The issue has recently been raised regarding African countries.

Concerning an overall relationship between sport and economic underdevelopment, “No queremos goles, queremos frijoles” (we do not want goals, we want beans) was painted on a Mexico stadium during the Football World Cup in 1986. This sentence expresses the economic dilemma that sport has to cope with in developing countries. Sport events and sport teams cannot make people forget underdevelopment, poverty, hunger and illiteracy. Whatever is stated in the policy declarations of the government, sport is neither a top priority in the state budget, or a pillar of the country’s education system, in any developing country. The great majority of Third World countries are to some extent dependent for their sporting activities on foreign aid, the importation of sport goods and equipment, and money from multinational sponsors (Andreff, 1988). Moreover, any assessment of the sports economy in developing countries is hindered by missing data: the lower the level of economic development the lower the availability of statistical data about sports. Underdeveloped physical education and sport participation is another aspect, that is, from a questionnaire sent by UNESCO to 32 African least developed countries – LDCs, with a response rate of 50% (Souchaud, 1995), it appeared that one country had no physical education scheduled in the primary school, three countries had scheduled one hour per week and the other twelve countries between two and three hours per week. In secondary schools, physical education was scheduled two to four hours per week in nearly all sampled countries. The problem is, however, that the hours supposedly devoted to physical education often were never fulfilled. This is mainly due to a shortage of sport teachers compared with the number of pupils (40 to 100 per sport teacher, on average, in the 16 African countries’ primary schools), a lack of sport facilities and equipment and practically no vocational training to upgrade the qualifications of those teachers involved in sport in secondary schools. Most sport teachers qualify abroad in bilateral co-operation programmes with European countries, after having obtained a grant to support their studies. The capacity of training sport teachers is bigger in emerging and

middle-income countries like Argentina, Cuba, Egypt, Syria or Thailand (Andreff, 2001) than in African LDCs.

The level of sport participation, measured by the ratio between the number of affiliated members to sports federations and the number of inhabitants, is low in developing countries. In 1983, there was one affiliated member to sports federations per 739 inhabitants in Africa, one per 707 inhabitants in Asia and one per 100 inhabitants in Latin America (Bourg, 1993). In Morocco, in 1993, there were 4 sport participants affiliated to sports federations per 1,000 inhabitants, and in Tunisia, in 1994, 14 sport participants per 1,000 inhabitants; in Africa's LDCs, in 1995, less than one inhabitant out of 800 was participating in sport (Souchaud, 1995). Thus, the ratio of sport participation in the Third World is in the range of 0.01% to 1% of the population (to be compared with 20-25% of the population that is affiliated to sports federations in European countries). Moreover, the great bulk of participants are concentrated in a few sports, which are primarily determined by the availability of sport facilities.

In African LDCs, football is the only national federation capable of organising a regular championship, which qualifies the winning team for the All-African competition (African Cup). In other sports, a calendar is scheduled but it is not regularly held, due to financial problems or the non-credible enrolment of some clubs. The above-mentioned UNESCO (2012) study also revealed that the practice of Olympic sports is more developed than non-Olympic sports. It also shows that more 'sophisticated' sports are not practiced, because participation requires specific facilities (swimming pools, golf greens, harbours, etc.). The scarcity of qualified coaches remains a problem. The cost of training coaches is beyond the budget constraint of developing countries, and many coaches must be trained abroad or they simply are 'imported' foreign coaches. High level athletes and sport participants cannot benefit from medical care to the same extent as in developed countries. In the 16 LDCs surveyed by UNESCO, 10 have an organised system of sports medicine care, but 8 have no specialised sporting doctors, and only 4 countries have both specialised doctors and sports medicine centres.

The government is the main sponsor and patron of sporting activities in many developing countries. About 80% of African LDCs do subsidise sports federations but, with the

exception of football, the amount of subsidies is too low to secure sporting activities all year long. With demographic expansion and the struggle against illiteracy, the number of pupils and students has dramatically increased in developing countries and has exhausted all the budgetary capacities needed for financing sport practice at school and elsewhere. In the face of a trade-off between literacy and physical education, no Ministry of Education has privileged the latter against the former. When new Ministries for Sports have been introduced in the governments of developing countries, they have neither been ranked among top priorities nor benefited from a substantial budget. The state budget for sports is rather low in absolute terms. Moreover, the finance flowing from the municipalities' budgets into sport activities is limited. For instance, facing a budget shortfall for sport development, the military government of Nigeria had launched a one naira (\$0.25) per capita sport development appeal fund. This sort of call to the population is hardly successful in countries where the average income is not enough for food. The money flowing from consumers (participants) into sport activities is practically nil.

Few sport facilities and few world sport events hosted, that is, there is no comprehensive data available about sport facilities, stadiums, playgrounds and games equipment in LDCs. In the 16 countries covered in the UNESCO survey, the overall number of sport facilities in 1995 was as follows: 1,130 football pitches (average: 71 per country), 490 volleyball courts (31), 474 basketball courts (30), 304 handball courts (19), 213 athletics tracks (13), 51 swimming pools (3) and 14 gymnasiums (less than one). No baseball field, boxing ring, cycling track, horse-riding area, hockey rink, tennis court or sailing harbour was found in these countries. In those nations where sport facilities are present, they have to cater a large number of potential participants (Table 1). Since sport facilities are so rare, we may have expected a large emphasis on maintenance. In fact, it is quite the contrary: sport facilities are often not maintained at all, due to insuperable financial costs. So that their use is reduced to a few exceptional events which in turn diminishes the number of local sport competitions. It also decreases the possible length of training time and hence the number of sport participants. In a vicious circle, with sport facilities being consequently under-utilised, their maintenance is felt to be neither useful nor necessary.

Among the 16 surveyed African LDCs, one even had no stadium capable of hosting a big sporting event that would conform to international rules and norms. Most 'national'

(domestic) sport events are organised in the capitals of LDCs simply because, in each country, the capital is the only city endowed with appropriate and well-maintained sport facilities. Hosting a world sport event is beyond what most developing countries can carry out. Usually, international competitions localised in the Third World are sponsored and partly financed from abroad or they are 'regional' (African, Asian, etc.) international sport events. Sometimes, the latter are postponed or cancelled due to financial constraints. The cost of organising the Olympic Games in Seoul 1988 (roughly \$5billion) was bigger than the value of the GNP of such countries as Kenya, Ethiopia and most LDCs. For instance, the XVIth Central American and Caribbean Games scheduled in 1990 were cancelled when the Guatemalan State withdrew its financial support. Several African countries are not able to participate in African Games or to the football World Cup simply because of inadequate finances. Nevertheless, there are a few exceptions to this general rule in some emerging countries like Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, South Africa and South Korea. It is only in this group that we can find countries able to organise big world events such as Olympic Games and the football or rugby World Cups.

The football World Cup has been organised eleven times in developed countries and six times in Latin American emerging countries until 2002. For the first time, the World Cup will be hosted in South Africa in 2010, after a FIFA decision that it should be located once in turn on the African continent. Former unfortunate candidate to host the World Cup in 2006, South Africa was expecting a revenue of 6.6 million rands (nearly \$1million) derived from tourism, building and transport expenditures, an additional inflow of foreign tourists in 2006 (an income of 16 billion rands, close to 2% of GDP), and 130,000 temporary jobs linked to the event. However, the world-wide prestige associated with organising a major international sport event is often at too high a cost for many developing countries. It remains to be seen whether, once the South African government has accepted this cost, it will be at the expense of the whole population that, as taxpayers, will ultimately cover the cost and the possible fiscal deficit fuelled by the Cup.

One major consequence of sport underdevelopment and lower sport performance in developing countries is the so-called 'muscle drain' (Player moves from developing countries) of Third World athletes (players) to developed countries' markets for talent. It

is increasingly fuelled by the wage gap, which is roughly one to twenty between the African and the French football player markets. The French (or any European) overall minimum wage is well over the average income of an African football player in his home country. In many North American and European professional sports, developing countries are utilised as nurseries for talent and provide a huge pool of labour. Latin American countries are also suffering from a muscle drain, in particular Argentina and Brazil as regards to football players (Andreff, 2004).

Many problems are associated with the muscle drain. It undermines the sporting substance of developing countries. It diverts the most talented athletes, those few who have had the opportunity to benefit from the rare domestic coaches and sport facilities. In some cases, it erodes the capacity of the home country to use its most talented athletes in international competitions, partly explaining the poor performances of developing countries in world sports events. For instance, their European professional clubs did not release football players from Africa for selection to their domestic national teams to play in matches of the 22nd African Cup 2000. With the emergence of fifteen to seventeen-year-old player championship in African countries, international transfers have increasingly affected very young players. Most young players transferred to European professional clubs ultimately do not sign a contract and then are left aside, cut off from their family, friends, and home country, with no source of income and no assistance. Clubs in home countries cannot impede these transfers and are either hardly compensated or not compensated at all. Talented young players 'imported' from developing countries can offer an interesting substitute in the face of skyrocketing prices in the European market, after the Bosman case. On the other hand, once hired, a talented young player from Africa or Latin America can after a time be sold again by the 'importing' club to another one at a higher price.

In developing countries, talented teenage players are either enrolled in clubs affiliated with their home country's national football federation or are playing for non affiliated sports associations that recruit non affiliated players for their squads. For players in non affiliated associations, the only way for an international transfer is through an underground labour market characterised by clandestine networks of player agents. The great bulk of players under eighteen transferred from developing countries come via this

illicit market. The worst situation emerges when a player enters the market and is eventually trapped in the network of illegal player agents connected with European professional clubs. For instance, in Italian football, 2,273 foreign affiliated players over sixteen have been transferred through illicit channels whereas 4,809 foreign players, aged six to sixteen, have been imported from Latin America and Africa. A book by Tshimanga (2001) covers plenty of detailed evidence about transfers of teenage African and Latin American players. Problems were so prevalent with such transfers in Belgium that, in November 2000, fifteen young African players, most of them minors, lodged a complaint in Brussels and Antwerp courts against all the Belgian professional clubs and players' agents. They were complaining about a 'trade of human beings' since, after being unsuccessfully tested and thus not hired by professional clubs, they had been abandoned by both clubs and players' agents. Once in that situation, as minors without either a labour contract or a return ticket to their home country, they became de facto illegal migrant workers in Belgium. A number of such cases can be found in all European countries. Tshimanga (2001).

On the other hand, no money accrues to either the national football federation or the nursery association when teenagers' transfer internationally from non-affiliated associations in their home country. As to transfers of players from affiliated clubs, a dumping price on the European market means a low transfer fee, which often does not even cover the education and training cost of the transferred player. (Ibid)

In order to cope with the less desirable effects of international teenage player transfers, that suggested to introduce a so-called Coubertobin tax (for the tax technicalities, see Andreff, 2004) with four purposes: 1/ covering part of the education and training costs in the home country of transferred players; 2/ providing a stronger disincentive to transfer an athlete or a player from a developing country, based on the player age at the time of transfer; 3/ slowing the muscle drain transfer from developing countries to professional player markets in developed countries ; and 4/ accruing revenues to a fund for sports development in the home country which would finance sport facilities building and maintenance, and physical education programmes at school.(Andreff,2004).

## **2.4. Sport for Development and Peace in Ethiopia**

NOC in collaboration with FSC has a programme of sport development and for peace. Sport police of the FDRE ( April 24,1998 P<sub>6</sub> N<sub>0</sub> 3.1 states that “ organize the public according to their areas of preference and inclination in their localities educational and working area in order to enables them engage themselves in sports activities individually or in groups”. Number 3.1.14 P<sub>7</sub>. “Construct and preserve sports and recreational facilities in rural areas in consistent with the settlement of the population and in cities according to the master plan so as enable the community to participate in sport activities at kebele worded zone and regional level ”.

Sport for Development and Peace refers to the intentional use of sport, physical activity and play to attain specific development and peace objectives, including, most notably, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Successful Sport for Development and Peace programs work to realize the rights of all members of society to participate in sport and leisure activities. Effective programs intentionally give priority to development objectives and are carefully designed to be inclusive. These programs embody the best values of sport while upholding the quality and integrity of sport experience.

Strong Sport for Development and Peace programs combine sport and play with other non-sport components to enhance their effectiveness. They are delivered in an integrated manner with other local, regional and national development and peace initiatives so that they are mutually reinforcing. Programs seek to empower participants and communities by engaging them in the design and delivery of activities, building local capacity, adhering to generally accepted principles of transparency and accountability, and pursuing sustainability through collaboration, partnerships, and co-ordination.

Sport alone, however, cannot ensure peace or solve complex social problems. Instead, sport should be positioned as a highly effective tool in a broader toolkit of development practices, and should be applied in a holistic and integrated manner with other interventions and programs to achieve optimal results.

Development and Peace Benefits Achievable through Sport includes;

1. Promoting health and preventing disease: Prevents and manages chronic disease, Prevents and manages infectious disease, Enhances mental health, Reduces direct and indirect health care costs.
2. Enhancing the inclusion and well-being of person with disabilities: Reduces stigma, Enhances socialization, Enables independence and participation, Contributes to empowerment, Fosters greater inclusion.
3. Enhancing social inclusion, preventing conflict, and building peace Promotes social inclusion, Provides respite in periods of conflict, Builds trust and establishes bridges between groups in conflict, Builds peace in a post-conflict situation, Promotes a culture of peace.
4. Strengthening development & education: Enhances physical health and development, Fosters psychosocial health and development, Builds life skills and positive values, Helps children and youth recover from trauma, Strengthens education.
5. Promoting gender equality and empowering girls & women: Enhances girls' and women's health and well-being, Fosters self-esteem and empowerment, Facilitates social inclusion and integration, Challenges gender norms, Provides opportunities for leadership and achievement.(Mood et al.1983).

Ethiopia is one of the poorest countries in the world, with a significant history of political upheaval, natural disaster, illness and economic crisis. Ranked 157 out of 169 countries on the United Nation's Human Development Index, the country faces many broad humanitarian and development challenges. Children and youth are disproportionately impacted by Ethiopia's low level of development. A number of fundamental children's rights are not met because of poverty, as illustrated by widespread malnutrition, high incidence of communicable disease and a large number of young living in situations of risk.(MYSC,2005)

Right to play's has been working in Ethiopia since 2005, and its experience there indicates that children and youth living in the capital of Addis Ababa and its surrounding areas face a variety of serious development challenges. In addition, there are a significant number of children and youth with a disability. These individuals are often marginalized

in Ethiopian society, and are very rarely given the opportunity to partake in the workforce, school or sports activities. And while the HIV and AIDS prevalence rate is not as high as in southern Africa, Ethiopia's HIV and AIDS pandemic has far from peaked. Factors contributing to the spread of HIV and AIDS in Ethiopia include the taboo nature of sexuality and reproductive health, gender-based violence, and the lack of a well-orchestrated national condom distribution and awareness strategy.

Right to play's sport program, *Enhancing the Development of Children in Ethiopia through Sport and Play*, directly addresses these challenges through the implementation of sport and play programs as innovative and dynamic learning tools that emphasize holistic development. Right to play's sport and play-based activities that promote the inclusion of girls and children living with disabilities, and work to improve health, build life skills and foster peace for children living in the targeted areas of Ethiopia.

Right to Play's program in Ethiopia seeks to improve the physical, social and emotional well-being of children and youth, and develop leadership and decision-making skills through regular sport and play activities. The program also creates an environment for sport that is conducive to participation by all of the country's most exposed demographics, including, girls and women, vulnerable children and youth, and persons with a disability. Right to Play also focuses on building the capacity of parents, local partners and schools to implement activities and integrate overarching Sport for Development and Peace values into their programming. The expected results will also include a reduction in violent behaviour and increased cooperation among children as well as an increase in healthy behaviour in relation to HIV and AIDS prevention.

In 2011, Right To Play plans to reach: 20,700 children and youth (48 per cent female); 414 coaches, leaders and teachers (48 per cent female); 41 schools; 10 youth centers.(MYSC,2005)

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1. Research design**

The researcher used both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The qualitative approach is more suitable to collect the actual data from the respondent. It is very important to offer detail analysis and description and represent non numerical data representation. Quantitative approach is also used to describe the amount and frequency of variables, and thus it is appropriate to represent numerically representing the data in work.

Qualitative data is the detailed descriptions of first hand information from interviewees about their experience concerning the study. The review of qualitative research covered the data of 2013/14. This year(September to June) was considered adequate to cover the most recent research on barriers and motivation to participation in sport and physical activity.

Research papers were sourced relevant references from published literature were followed up and included where they met inclusion criteria.

#### **3.2. Sampling design**

Simple random sampling method gives a sample comparatively much more convenient to draw, (Lokesh, 2008) Since a frame of household's population is available from the sample kebele administration offices or accurately listed and is finite, methods of systematic selection were provided a sample which approximates a random sample. The households Survey was a sample survey (simple random sampling design). A two-stage sampling process was used to select the sample of households for the survey.

The first stage was to select kebeles from a list of kebeles provided by the Bensa woreda Administration office. The second stage was also to select households within the chosen kebeles.

The researcher generally started with a list of household heads population listed in alphabetic order. To select a sample of size 60, the researcher selected a household unit at

random from the first 25 households list and then every 25<sup>th</sup> subsequent unit were selected.

The student's Survey was a sample survey (simple random sampling design). Two-stage sampling processes were used to select the sample of students for the survey.

The first stage was to select schools from a list of schools provided by the Bensa woreda Education office. The second stage was also to select classes within the chosen schools.

Concerning selection of schools, to take account of school composition, class time available and the language ability of students, a survey form was designed for level Years 15 to 18 (secondary school) groups.

Two secondary Schools were allocated to groups. Depending on the level Years 15 to 18 age range of students at a school, schools could be in two groups. To provide a wereda spread of schools and include different-sized schools, Two kebeles were used for the kebeles stratum based on wereda area Within each of these strata schools were grouped relative to size (small, medium and large).

Classes were selected at random from each of the schools selected for the survey. Depending on the year-level and the size of the school were selected.

From two secondary schools, 40 students (20 from each schools) with gender consideration were selected. The basic sample units are therefore individual students, while secondary school students, provided the basis for sample frame respectively.

Here it can be noted that statistical sampling in the community is not easy, but the origin and position of the researcher in the community enabled him to do so.

### **3.3. Data collection tools**

1. Closed form or restricted type of questionnaire inquiry form was used because it is easy to respond, takes little time to fill out, is relatively objective and fairly easy to tabulate and analyze.
2. Unstructured interview was used to communicate concerned officials and field workers in study area.
3. Check-list was used to assess the condition of sport infrastructure or at least open space

### **3.4. Data collection techniques**

The data for the study were collected from primary source that is by distributing questionnaire, interview and focus group discussion. All those instruments were prepared by open ended and close ended questions.

#### **3.4.1. Interview**

Interview is an interactive process between two or more individuals in which one person provides the sensory verbal stimuli and other person(s) responds to it by a verbal reply. Any two persons in conversation does not make interview (Majaumdor, 2005)

Interview was dealt with techniques like preparation for interview which is planning the sort of information needed and accordingly preparing questions which extract systematically; secondly, conducting the interview in which in the execution of an interview starting with pleasant conversation and ask factual non-threatening question in the beginning; and lastly, recording of the data or taking notes.

Also information about the sports and activities adult and young people take part in that are organised by schools and clubs, as well as about young people's involvement in events will be collected.

To make the survey easy for secondary school (students of 15-18 ages) to understand, the questions asked about sport participation, simpler wording were used.

#### **3.4.2. Focus group discussion**

The methodology involves bringing together a group or service of group of individuals to discuss an issue in the presence of moderator. The moderator ensures that the discussion remains on the issue of hand while electing a wide range of opinion on that issue (Barrie, Guntex, 2000)

The researcher designs one focus group discussion with two HPE teachers, coaches, community leaders, students and government officials who are living in the woreda.

The researcher selected participants for focus group discussion based on their accessibility and voluntaries to participant in the discussion.

During the discussion the researcher was acting as a mediator to give equal chance or opportunity, for the members of the focus group to state their opinion without any influence of the other members, who tried to mobilize their conversation and to improve their opinion on the other participant or members.

### **3.4.3. Questionnaire**

The questionnaire was prepared in Amharic and administered by enumerators recruited and trained for this purpose. To facilitate easy communication with the households during the interview, enumerators recruited were those who can speak the local language (Sidamu Afoo).

All students present in the class on the day scheduled for the survey were invited to take part. The survey was voluntary and if students do not want to take part they were given an alternative task to do while the other students completed the survey forms.

Some students were absent on the day of the survey (for example, due to illness) and if class attendance was below an agreed threshold the survey was rescheduled.

### **3.5. Data source**

In order to address the stated problem and objective both primary and secondary data were used in the study. The primary data were collected from a survey of kebele households and secondary school students of 15-18 ages .

The relevant secondary data sources were collected from library sources, and organizations. Some of them include: Sport commission, Ministry of finance and economic development (MOFED) and so on, to describe the area under study, its population size and major socio-economic aspects.

### **3.6. Methods of data analysis**

Both qualitative and quantitative data analyzing methods were used in order to analyze and interpret the data which were collected through questionnaire, interview and focus group discussion. The researcher has been used tables, figure and percentages in this presentation and analysis. Tables are narrated by using simple and clear words as well as sentence as much as possible.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter deals with analysis and discussion, results of the study which was conducted on community participation in sport activities, in Bensa woreda of three kebeles (Kebado, Burra and Denby) and two secondary schools (Kebena Gata and Alo) students in the woreda. The main purpose of this study is to assess participation aspects by using households and students survey.

#### **4.4. Presenting and analyzing of questionnaire**

The questionnaire has both close ended and open ended questions. The questionnaire from the collected data is analyzed and presented briefly by using tables, graphs and words.

##### **4.4.1. Demographic Distribution of the Respondents**

The demographic distribution of the respondents of research includes sex, age, year of study, occupation, marital status, and family size and so on. Besides, it helps to know what demographic combination respondents have; keeping this in mind the demographic distribution of respondents of this research is stated as follows.

**Table 1 Demographic distribution of Respondent**

Distribution of the Respondents			No of Respondents	Percentage
Sex	Secondary School Students	Male	20	50%
		Female	20	50%
		Sub Total	40	100%
	Household Heads	Male	51	85%
		Female	9	15%
		Sub Total	60	100%
		Total	100	100%
Age	Secondary School Students	From 15-18	40	100%
	Household Heads	From 25-30	16	26%
		From 31-55	33	55%
		Above 55	11	19%
Total	60	100%		
Year of study	Secondary School Students	Tenth grade	28	70%
		Ninth grade	12	30%
		Total	40	100%
	Household Heads	Below grade 8	7	11%
		From grade 8 to 12	39	66%
		Diploma/certificate and above	14	23%
		Total	60	100%
Occupation /employment/	Household Heads	farmer	31	52%
		employed	15	25%
		Looking after family	6	10%
		retire	8	13%
		total	60	100%
Family size	Household Heads	Male	129	54%
		Female	111	46%

As previously mentioned, this study is based on the information collected from a total of 100 respondents. When we look the gender distribution of respondents, 50 percent of secondary school students are male and the rest are females. From the total respondents of household heads only 15 percent are female headed whereas the rest 85 percent are male headed.

The overall educational background (year of study) of household heads is that 90 percent of them are literate and the rest 10 percent are illiterate. Among the literate farmers (those who can read and write) 80 percent of them were primary school drop outs (grades 1 to 6) 14 percent were secondary school (grades 7 and above) dropouts and the remaining 6 percent have religious and basic adult education backgrounds.

When we see the age group out of household heads respondents 16(26%) were between 25-30 age group and also 11(19%) were above 55. Therefore as indicated in the above table the highest percentage of the respondents were 33(55%) found between 31-55 ages.

Out of the total of 60 household heads respondents, the highest occupation of respondents were farmers 31 (52%) and second, employed 15 (25%).

#### **4.4.2. Data presentation and Analysis respondents that watch sport on TV**

**Table 2: Statistical summary of respondents that looking sport on TV**

<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Alternatives</b>	<b>N<sub>o</sub> of respondent</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Secondary School students	Yes	40	100%
	No	-	-
	Total	40	100%
Household Heads	Yes	51	85%
	No	9	15%
	Total	60	100%

Statically, summary of audience viewing habit of sport, It can be said that most of the respondent (As can be observed in table 2, above, out of a total number of respondents) 85% of them watch sport on TV while the remaining15% dislike it. Young people are

keen spectators, watching sport on TV, and at live games and events. Most young people watch sport (sometimes or often), particularly on TV, and watching sport online was not so popular, around one-half of 15 to 18-year-old boys said they watched sport, live games and events. Watching sport tends to be less popular with girls than boys, although 15 to 18-year-old girls were more likely than boys of these ages to say that they went to watch family or friends play sport games and events.

#### 4.4.3. Data presentation and Analysis of type of sports participated

**Table 3 Statistical summary of respondents sports participation**

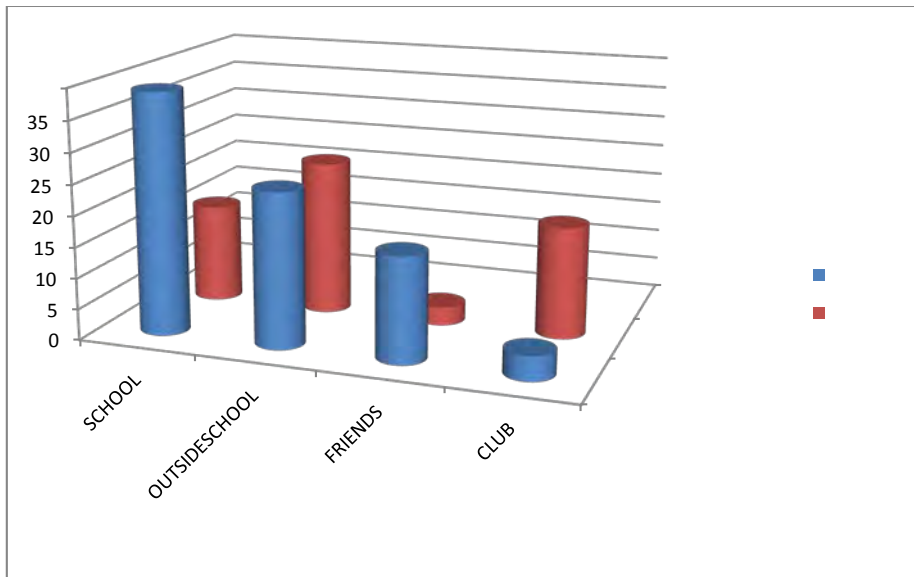
NO	Alternatives	No of respondent	
		Secondary School students	Household Heads
1	Football	15	17
2	Volleyball	9	11
3	Table tennis	7	5
4	Athletics	5	3
5	Martial art	3	-
6	Basketball	-	-
<b>Total</b>		<b>39</b>	<b>36</b>

Most boys and girls take part in a number of sports/activities on average young people take part in between 2 and 3 activities which includes all sports/activities except basketball. When the focus is on one or more such as football and Volleyball sports/activities, Participation levels are high for boys and girls and household heads.

No regular participation in sports/activities for younger boys and girls (i.e. in Years 15-18) and also the frequency is lower for older students (boys and girls in Years 17-18) and for household heads. Students (15 to 18-year-old boys and girls) were more likely to belong to a school sports team than a club.

#### 4.4.4. Data presentation and Analysis of organizing sports

Figure 5, Data presentation and Analysis of organizing sports



Schools, sports clubs and less formal settings are all important for young people's sport and recreation, Young people 15 to 18 years old and household heads were asked if the sport and recreation activities they had done "this year" were organized by a school (outside of class time), by a club (outside of school), or if they had just done them while they were playing with friends, family or on their own. As can be observed in chart1 household heads participation is higher outside schools which were organized by woreda sport office for all zonal sport competition.

For almost all sports/activities, participation rates are highest when young people were playing with friends, family or on their own. Participation rates for most sports/activities were higher in the school setting than with clubs. Over 19 out of 20 boys and 20 out of 20 girls (15 to 18 years old) had taken part in one or more sport and recreation activities organized by their school. This included participation in school sports teams, school

competitions, and lunchtime or after school activities that the school organized. Participation in this setting was slightly higher for 15 to 16-year-olds than 17to 18-year-olds.

Most young people engage in some competitive sport. When asked what the highest level was that they had played sport at “this year”, the majority of young people (15 to 18 years old) said they engaged in competitive sport by playing in a school team or club competition.

#### **4.4.5. Data presentation and Analysis of reasons for sport participation**

**Table 4 summary of reasons for sport participation**

<b>NO</b>	<b>Alternatives</b>	<b>No of respondent</b>	
		Secondary School students	Household Heads
1	Health, exercise and fitness	9	6
2	Being with others or socializing	9	11
3	Enjoyment or fun	10	16
4	Acquiring of sport skills	11	3
<b>Total</b>		<b>39</b>	<b>36</b>

Around 10 out of 39 boys and girls in this age group and 16 out of 36 household heads said that they had just played sport socially for fun with family and friends and not in any of the three ways listed above. Young people playing in this way may compete with each other but this social participation is distinguished here from the more structured types of participation listed above, and also that in response to this question, only 1 out of 40 young students said he didn’t play sport because of disability.

#### **4.5. Interview on community participation**

The researcher conducted interview with two teachers in secondary school graduated in HPE and government official (Bensa wereda sport office head), on the issue of sport development activities and community participation. The researcher treated questions as follows;

According to teachers there are three major benefits of sport participation: entertainment, education, physical and mental health, and participation of the community at large in all sport development activities insures social wellbeing. As to the government official it is government objective to associate sport development with peace, democracy and development of the wereda peoples' life betterment.

Also added that contemporary role of sport media, the number of sport viewers increased on a particular program the media organization was benefited. Because the media organization cannot work only in information distribution, it also works on entertainment and means of income for the company.

#### **4.6. Result of Focus Group Discussion (FGD)**

The researcher conducted focus group discussion for the sake of increasing the validity and reliability of data out comes obtained from questionnaire.

In the Focal group discussion (FGD) with Bensa woreda education sector experts and with experts from council of sport, they disclose that the existing primary school curricula and non formal education programmes in the woreda are important to develop urban and rural socio-economic development if sport activities are taken as means of community mobilization instrument to participate and give opportunities for small holder farmers and school students in rural areas of the woereda.

Also problems were discussed like: absence of sport infrastructure such as sport fields, stadium, gymnasium; equipments, skilled manpower, awareness creation programs, strong public institutions and so on.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Summary**

This chapter deals with three important topics; the Summary, conclusion and recommendation parts. The finding and conclusions of the data are drawn based on the data presented and analyzed in chapter four. The recommendation part is also suggested based on the finding. The following Summary parts drawn by the researcher based on findings as follows; The 2013/14 secondary school Survey was a school-based survey. Because the researcher wanted to include particularly young people of age 15-18 (as per Youth national policy of Ethiopia, age between 15-29) in the survey, school was the best place to contact them. School is where the majority of young people get their first exposure to sport and recreation. Basing the survey in schools also allowed the researcher to ask teachers some questions about sport and recreation in their schools, so the researcher can find out what more can be done to support schools and teachers, and link schools to sport and recreation organizations in their communities. This survey gives an overview of adult engagement in sport. It uses 2013/14 Taking Part data. The 2013/14 statistics are based on interviews of adults household heads aged 25 and above years.

It also raised three basic research questions:-

1. What are the reasons for participation and nonparticipation in sport activities in the area?
2. What are the benefits of participation in sport activities in the study area?
3. What should be contributed by the community, government and other stakeholders to enhance participation?

These initial results from the 2013/14 young people's survey provide key insights into the way Bensa woreda community take part in sport and recreation activities, as well as telling us where and how they take part, and what sports/activities they would like to try or do more of.

- Schools play an important role in providing sporting opportunities for young people, almost all younger take part in some sport or recreation activities. Around 99.9% of boys and girls of all ages had taken part in one or more sport and recreation activities at least once “this year”.
- Most young people engage in some competitive sport, when asked what the highest level was that they had played sport at “this year”, the majority of young people (15 to 18 years old) said they engaged in competitive sport by: playing in a school competition, playing with a friends in school or team, representing their school or wereda.
- The top three perceived benefits of participating in sport are the same for both students and adults: health, exercise and fitness, being with others/socializing and enjoyment/fun.
- In general and not surprisingly, younger people are more likely to take part in sport and active recreation, 15-18 year olds are most likely to play football outdoors and football is the most popular sport among this age group and household heads too.
- Non-participation in sport, older people are less likely to participate in sports: of women aged 25 do not participate, compared with 16% of men and 35% of women aged 25 and above years.
- Irrespective of age, the two main reasons for non-participation cited by those not currently taking part in sport are poor health and difficulty in finding the time. Not surprisingly, older people were more likely to cite poor health, while younger people were more likely to cite a lack of time.
- Participation in sport and recreation varies widely by household type. For example, people from households with children are more likely to participate, while lone have the lowest rates of Participation compared with lone adults and those from households with two and above adults and children who have the highest.
- Employment status, there are no significant differences in participation rates for sport and recreation between those that work full-time, part-time, are students or who look after the family/home. Rates are, however,

markedly lower for those who are retired or are sick, disabled or injured. Conversely, those least likely to take part in sport would have the following characteristics: female, elderly, low educational attainment, low income, poor health, did not participate while growing up and lives in a household with several children.

## **5.2 Conclusions**

Further academic research is necessary to answer some of the questions raised by the data and explore the reasons behind community in different aspects of participation.

- Shortage of time is the main reason for less participation of the community in sport
- Many people in the community didn't participate in sport regularly
- Most members of the community didn't know the benefit of sport
- It is known that sports infrastructure aren't adequate
- Closer communication and collaboration between the governing bodies could also contribute to the development and recording of participation data and procedures for archiving and storing historical data.
- There is much potential for collaborative projects to introduce sport in less or non-participating communities and strengthening existing participation.

This analysis of Bensa wereda community sport participation is the beginning of the story.

## **5.3 Recommendations**

Based on the result and finding the researcher recommended

- ❖ Providing quality sport experiences for young people and providing guidance for parents, teachers, coaches and other volunteers
- ❖ Encouraging the education sector to provide more organized sport and recreation opportunities in schools

- ❖ Supporting opportunities and investing in sport and recreation activities that appeal to young people
- ❖ Developing clubs and strengthening links with schools
- ❖ Tackling drop-out by finding more ways to keep young people engaged in sport and recreation in their teenage years
- ❖ Supporting organizations should provide quality programmes for fundamental movement and basic sports skills.
- ❖ Emphasis should be given for construction of sport infrastructure based on community resources such as sport fields in all kebeles and schools in the wereda.
- ❖ Sport organizations such as Council of sport of Bensa wereda, should be established at kebele and other community based organizations, and hence the community should own and mobilize its resources.
- ❖ It reminds FSC to check the implementation of its sport policy.

Finally, the researcher suggests that further research need to be developed and explored on participation of the community in sport activities in particular and contribution of sport to economic growth and development in general. Such studies need to be carried out at zonal and regional level for further application of the studies in the policy framework of the SNNPRS.

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Field Code Changed

**APPENDIX**

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**  
**SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**  
**DEPARTMENT OF SPORT SCIENCE**  
**THESIS ON COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN SPORT**  
**ACTIVITIES**  
**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DATA COLLECTION**  
**(SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE)**

**INTRODUCTION**

1. CODE -----
2. NAME OF THE ENUMERATOR -----
3. DATE OF THE INTERVIEW-----TIME-----TO----- (LOCAL TIME)
4. ADDRESS: WEREDA- **BENSA**, KEBELE -----
5. SUPERVISOR: **KINKINO TUNSISA**.
6. POSITION: **STUDENT AT AAU**.

**This questionnaire format is prepared to relevant primary data from households of sampled kebeles and secondary schools in Bensa wereda.**

**This interview will take a few minutes and is completely confidential and strictly for academic purpose.**



## PART TWO

### 2.1 Detail information. For Household heads(HH) & Students(SST)

1. Is there any family member participation in sport activities this year? **(HH)**
  - A. Yes
  - B. No
2. If 'yes' why? **(HH)**
  - A. Health, exercise and fitness.
  - B. Being with others or socializing.
  - C. Enjoyment or fun.
  - D. Acquiring of sport skills.
  - E. Others(specify) -----  
---
3. What type of ts participated? **(HH)** 
  - A. Football
  - B. volleyball
  - C. Table tennis
  - D. Basketball
  - E. Athletics
  - F. Martial art
4. If 'NO' why r Q.1) **(HH)**
  - A. Time
  - B. expense
  - C. Age
  - D. health problem
  - E. Dislike
  - F. Others(specify) -----
5. Do you participate in sport activities this year? **(HH) & (SST)**
  - A. Yes
  - B. No
6. If 'NO' why?(for Q. 5) **(HH) & (SST)**
  - A. Time
  - B. expense
  - C. Age
  - D. health problem
  - E. Dislike
  - F. Others(specify) -----
7. If 'yes' why? (for Q. 5) **(HH) & (SST)**
  - A. Health, exercise and fitness.
  - B. Being with others or socializing.
  - C. Enjoyment or fun.
  - D. Acquiring of sport skills.
  - E. Others (specify) -----
8. What types of sports you participated? **(HH) & (SST)**
  - A. Football
  - B. volleyball
  - C. Table tennis
  - D. Basketball
  - E. Athletics
  - F. Martial art
  - F. Others (specify) -----

9. What type of sport do you like more? (for Q. 8) **(HH) & (SST)**

- A. Football  D. Basketball   
B. Volleyball  E. Athletics   
C. Table tennis  F. Martial art

10. How often do you participate? **(HH) & (SST)**

- A. Once B. twice  C. three or more

11. With whom do you participate? **(HH) & (SST)**

- A. with friends  
B. myself   
C. family members   
D. team or group

12. What level was that you had played sport? **(HH) & (SST)**

- A. Kebele   
B. woreda   
C. zone and above.   
D. Others (specify) -----

13. Who organized the sport? **(HH) & (SST)**

- A. school  
B. club or outside school  
C. yourself, family or friends.

14. How many sport fields built in your kebele? ) **(HH)**

- A. One   
B. two   
C. three and above   
D. .I don't know

15. Did you watch sport on TV? **(HH) & (SST)**

- A. Yes  B. No

16. If 'Yes 'how often? **(HH) & (SST)**

- A. always B. sometimes

17. What kinds of sport development activities do you participate? **(HH)**

- A. in cash  D. none   
B. in kind  E. others (specify)-----  
C. both in cash and in kind

18. What should be done to enhance sport participation in the community? **(HH)** & **(SST)**

A. by the community -----

B. by the government -----

C. other stakeholders -----

***Thank you for your cooperation!!***